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The National Vocational Guidance Association Bulletin

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Frederick J. Allen, *Editor*

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EDITORIAL STATEMENT

THIS issue of the National Vocational Guidance Association Bulletin completes Volume I. The next issue will be an early October number in the coming school year. The next volume will comprise eight issues, but each subscriber will receive eight consecutive numbers, running through a full calendar year from the date of subscription.

We desire to thank those who have so generously contributed of their best thoughts and experiences to the columns of this magazine. We have desired to maintain a standard of excellence in material and in its presentation, and we trust that no number during the year has fallen below this standard. Such a publication must, indeed, be a labor of coöperation, and the spirit of helpfulness shown to us by workers in the great and growing field of vocational guidance has been most gratifying.

Professor Harry D. Kitson, of Indiana University, President of the National Vocational Guidance Association, has the following to say:

> I am sure all the members of the Association are conscious of a quickening of the Vocational Guidance pulse due to the excellent means of communication we have in the Bulletin; and that whenever two or three of them get together they will meet with profit to themselves and to the cause.

Professor Frederick J. Adams, Director of the Bureau of Educational Tests and Experiments of the University of Texas, writes as follows:

> I most certainly enjoy reading the Bulletins of the National Vocational Guidance Association and find them a great assistance in my classes studying the problems and methods of vocational guidance. The future possibilities of such a periodical can hardly be imagined; for I believe we are just embarking upon one of the greatest movements in education.

Professor Edward W. Glenn, of the State Teachers College of Maryville, Missouri, sends this encouraging word:

> I am more than pleased with the Bulletin the National Vocational Guidance Association mails me every month. You are doing a mighty fine work — keep it up.

Miss Anne S. Davis, Director of Vocational Guidance in Chicago, and past President of the National Association, writes thus:

> I think the April number of the National Vocational Guidance Association Bulletin is splendid.

Mr. Edward Rynearson, Director of Vocational Guidance, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, writes of the formation of a new local association as follows:

> *In re* the branch association: Mr. W. P. Allen, counselor of the South Hills High School and secretary of the Western Pennsylvania Branch of the National Vocational Guidance Association, told me over the phone that he had sent you $19 and the names of the members of our section who henceforth will be known as a "branch" as you suggest. I sincerely hope that these people will receive the Bulletins and enjoy them as much as I do.

We have on hand, as well as promised for our columns during the coming year, an abundance of excellent material, but we invite workers in the field constantly to send in material, whether as formal articles, abstracts of articles or public addresses, or news of local activities.

THE ROUTINE JOB AND THE ROUTINE CHILD

DR. HELEN T. WOOLLEY

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We are all sufficiently familiar with the concept of the routine job — the job which consists largely of monotonous operations which can be learned within a few weeks and whose content offers no real scope for training. We are not so clear as to how many children there are who are of the routine type — children who like the routine jobs and seem willing to earn a living at them indefinitely. Our usual conception is that these are children of limited intellectual ability.

A study of elimination from our public schools shows that practically all of the children who are most inferior intellectually are eliminated early, almost as soon as the law permits. A comparison of children who left school at fourteen with those who remained in school up to eighteen showed that, when estimated by mental tests, only 25 per cent of the working group equalled or excelled the median of the school group at fourteen years, and by eighteen years only 10 per cent of the same working group equalled or excelled the median child who had remained in school up to that age. It is safe to say that by sixteen years all of the very inferior children are eliminated from the schools.

The group which goes to work early, however, is not composed exclusively of inferior children. The tests also showed that within the working group are some who are just as promising as those who remain in the school. This means that the range of ability among those who leave school as soon as the law permits, is exceedingly wide. It extends from those who are feeble-minded up to the most brilliant children in the school.

Since these facts have been established, it now becomes very interesting to find out to what extent wide differences in ability among young working children are recognized in the occupational world. Our special study in Cincinnati included over 700 working children whose industrial records were kept from year to year for four years. Statistics of earning capacity, of steadiness of employment, of number of jobs held, and of kinds of work done were kept, and these were later analyzed with reference to the abilities of the children. From our study of the industrial records themselves, we derived the following interesting facts. Among children who left school at fourteen and who had completed 5th, 6th, 7th, or 8th grades, the amount of schooling bore no relation to earning capacity either in terms of annual earnings or in terms of average weekly wage. The fourteen year old children who had completed only the fifth grade had as good a chance in earning as those who had completed the eighth grade. The entire group proved to be much steadier workers than we had been led to expect. From 70 to 80 per cent of the entire number were employed throughout the year with not more than two weeks of idleness. The average number of positions per year was not more than two, even in the first year, and was only one in later years.

The first method we took of trying to find what relation, if any, existed between physical ability and various industrial factors, or between mental ability and the same industrial factors, was to work out the standard correlations. The following tables present these correlations in detail.

PHYSICAL TESTS WITH TOTAL YEARLY WAGE

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.17	−.001
15	.24	−.17
16	.22	−.10
17	.02	−.09

PHYSICAL TESTS WITH AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.15	.04
15	.23	−.14
16	.25	.17
17	.07	−.08

PHYSICAL TESTS WITH NUMBER OF WEEKS EMPLOYED

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.09	−.12
15	−.03	−.16
16	.02	−.005
17	−.08	−.13

PHYSICAL TESTS WITH NUMBER OF POSITIONS HELD

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	−.04	.09
15	−.01	.06
16	−.06	.09
17	.03	.13

MENTAL TESTS WITH TOTAL YEARLY WAGE

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.09	.08
15	.10	.03
16	.09	.12
17	.02	.004

MENTAL TESTS WITH AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGE

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.09	.02
15	.08	.05
16	.02	.10
17	−.09	.01

MENTAL TESTS WITH NUMBER OF WEEKS EMPLOYED

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.03	.05
15	−.001	−.07
16	.02	.10
17	.12	−.02

MENTAL TESTS WITH NUMBER OF POSITIONS HELD

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*
14	.13	−.07
15	.09	−.03
16	−.06	−.02
17	.08	−.007

In terms of physical tests we find a correlation, in the case of boys, large enough to have some significance. The boys with good physical ability earned somewhat more than those of poor physical ability. In the case of girls, the correlation is so small as to mean little, but what there is of it is negative. In other words, there is a slight tendency for girls of poor physical skill to earn more than those of good physical skill. The two measures which show regularity of employment — the number of weeks employed each year, and the number of positions held — show correlations which are very close to zero. This means that there is practically no relation between physical ability and regularity of employment. The table showing correlations with mental ability is even more startling. The correlation between mental tests and wage earning is so small as to be negligible for both boys and girls. It is for the most part positive, but very near the zero point. The correlations with the two factors indicating regularity of employment are also exceedingly small and some of them are negative. Our conclusion must be that there is practically no relationship between mental ability and either earning capacity or a regularity of employment during the first four years in industry on the part of either boys or girls.

This result was so startling and so unexpected that it was necessary to make a further analysis in the attempt to interpret it. Accordingly, we selected the highest 10 per cent and the lowest 10 per cent of both boys and girls in both mental and physical measurements and analyzed their records carefully. The analysis added nothing to what the correlations had already told us about earning capacity and regularity of employment. They did, however, give a clue to the whole situation when it came to a study of the kinds of work done. The kinds of work done cannot, of course, be treated statistically by the correlation method because there is no way of reducing them to numerical values. The facts were as follows: The largest number of children in all four groups were employed in factory work. Nevertheless, in the two superior groups, those who were superior physically and those who were superior mentally, we found clerical work, sales positions, and some skilled trades fairly generously represented; whereas the very inferior groups, either physical or mental, contained practically none of these occupations. In terms of skilled trades, we found among the superior boys, some who were starting in as electricians or locksmiths or cutters in the shoe factories, and among the girls some who were learning millinery, telephone operating, or telegraph operating. None of these occupations were found among the very inferior. Furthermore, the kinds of factory work done differed in the two groups. When superior children entered the factories they were likely to be given the better grades of work. Semi-skilled jobs of machine tending or hand-jobs requiring skill were frequently assigned them. The very inferior were much more likely to be put on routine hand work and employed as mere helpers to some adult. In spite of the fact that the superior children, on the whole, received the superior factory jobs, they did not remain as long in the factory as the inferior ones. We found our very inferior boys and girls staying contentedly two, three, and four years at the most routine types of work in the factories, whereas no superior boy or girl stayed long at factory work. There were a few instances of employments that lasted a year or two, but most of them were for less than a year. The statistics on wages and regularity of employment now become more understandable. What it means is that for young and comparatively untrained beginners, no distinction is made in wages for the more skilled types of work. The employer pays no more for the comparatively untrained office worker than he does for the merely routine factory worker. The beginning salesman, or the beginner in a skilled trade, gets no more than the beginner in the most inferior types of labor. This remains true throughout the first four years in industry and, indeed, is even more strikingly true in the fourth year than at the start. What we now wish to try to consider is the bearing of such facts as these on our theories of general and vocational education. Unfortunately, in discussing this topic, facts are very few, and theories very many. Neither is it always easy to unravel fact from theory.

It seems to be an accepted fact that automatic types of work are on the increase. The whole trend of production seems to be in the direction of increasing automatic processes. I confess that I have no proof of this fact, but doubtless it could be obtained through industrial statistics of employment. Progressive limitation of the number of highly skilled workers needed in industry and of the number of executives needed, seems to go hand in hand with routine mass production. On the other hand, the few skilled workers and executives needed must be of higher quality and better training than ever before.

It has further been accepted as a fact by many people that the effect of automatic work must be to bring about deterioration of the worker. Before one can accept this statement as a fact, it seems necessary to do a great deal of interpreting and limiting. In the first place, what kinds of work are strictly monotonous or automatic? It is not an easy matter to classify processes on this basis. The classification has usually been made by some very intelligent onlooker who considers what the work would seem like to him if he were doing it. Now, it is quite possible that a process which would seem hopelessly automatic and uninteresting to a highly intelligent and trained person might contain sufficient elements of variety and interest for one of limited intelligence and small training to make it mentally satisfactory. Indeed, there is some indication both from what workers say and from the way they behave that many jobs which we as theorizers classify as monotonous and deteriorating in effect, they find sufficiently interesting and stimulating to be satisfactory as permanent occupations. It is notoriously difficult to get many workers who have once acquired skill and speed in a given automatic process, to be willing to change and learn another one either for variety of work or for the sake of increasing their familiarity with the productive process as a whole. If the monotony were proving irksome and were having the effect of making them nervous and restless, it seems as though a change of occupation would be far more welcome than it proves to be. Furthermore, it is very easy for the observer to confuse cause and effect in this case. We observe a man who has been employed for a long time at automatic work and see that he is a very inferior type of human being. We are likely to jump at the conclusion that the automatic work has brought about his deterioration. It may be, however, that the man selected automatic work and was content to stick at it because he was a very inferior human being. It may even be that he has profited more by it than he would have by attempting something which was beyond his capacities.

It is, of course, true that level of ability is not the only element of personality involved in the type of work selected. Just because a man is a moron does not prove by any means that he will be a success as an automatic worker. He may have the type of unstable personality which makes continuous employment at any process impossible. Furthermore, just because a man is superior does not prove that he cannot do automatic work under reasonable conditions without injury. Automatic work is merely one kind of drudgery. I know of no professions which do not contain a certain amount of drudgery. Certainly the laboratory research worker, who is considered one of the most creative of our intellectual group, has a large amount of mere drudgery to do. The same thing is true of the statistical worker. Now, what is it that makes the difference between the attitude of the research worker toward his drudgery and that of the factory operative towards his drudgery, or is there necessarily a difference?

It seems to me that the difference is related to two factors — first, the worker's mental attitude toward his drudgery; and second, the content of the rest of his life. If the worker has an understanding of the purpose of his drudgery, and what is to come out of it, as the creative research worker always has, then the drudgery itself becomes endurable for the sake of the end to be attained. The number of hours which can be devoted to mere drudgery either by the research worker or by the factory operative is undoubtedly limited, but modern methods of production are rapidly demonstrating that a comparatively short working day will be sufficient to enable every worker to earn a living, when industries are satisfactorily organized. Is it equally true that the worker can be given an attitude of interest in, and understanding of, his automatic job which will make it a reasonable part of his life, just as the drudgery of the research worker is? There are two movements in modern industry which make one hopeful that this is a possible outcome. The real elements of intellectual interest in modern industry, aside from the inventive phases of it, have to do with the whole processes of planning and managing the undertaking. So far, most workers have been given no share in this phase of the industry. Now, however, our shop committees of workers who coöperate with the executives in the management of the business, are paving the way to giving the worker his share of the intellectual interests of the project. In addition to being given a share in the planning and management, many workers are now being given a share in profits by various plans either of stockholding on the part of employees or of other types of profit-sharing. Under these conditions, the entire productive process takes on the aspect of a coöperative undertaking in which the worker has an opportunity to make any contribution of which he is capable, in planning and managing the project, and to share in its legitimate profits. I can see no reason why, under these conditions, the drudgery of the factory worker should be any more injurious to him than the drudgery of the research worker is to him.

We have said that the second factor which helps determine the attitude of the worker toward his job is that of what the rest of his life is like. If the hours of labor must be made short, as they obviously must in the case of purely automatic work, then the way in which the worker spends his free time becomes of increasing importance. In other words, more and more stress must be placed upon education for leisure.

In view of these considerations, what be-

comes of our theory of education and particularly of our concept of vocational education? By vocational education we have usually meant education which fits the individual directly for a wage earning occupation. Much of the field of vocational education remains untouched by the facts that we have been considering. All of the professions, all of the realms of office work and salesmanship, all of the executive positions, and whatever of really skilled mechanical work is still needed by the industries, is obviously the fair field of vocational education. However, our facts seem to indicate that probably half of our children, or perhaps even more than half, in the future, will have to earn their livings at monotonous types of productive work. We have seen that the poorest 10 per cent of young children are entirely capable of proving satisfactory in this field without training except what the factory itself gives. In other words, it is apparently true that about half of our children will have to earn a living in a field which offers no scope whatever for specific preparation for wage earning. Any individual, not feeble-minded, can learn what needs to be learned in a few weeks, and learn it better inside the factory than out. What then becomes of the educational program for this large proportion of our children? Obviously, vocational education in the sense of immediate preparation for wage earning is not to be considered. The stress of education for these children should go into giving them an attitude toward, and a point of view about work, and in training them to a reasonable use of their leisure time.

Now, it must be recognized that many of these children, probably the majority of them, are too limited in capacity to profit by the more abstract and intellectual types of instruction which have been characteristic of our secondary schools.

If the traditional type of secondary education is unsuited to the capacities and the interests of at least a fourth — possibly half — of our children, and if vocational training in the sense of preparation for a specific wage earning job is now out of the question, then what content remains for education and to what age should children be retained in school?

Let me try to answer my last question first. The considerations which should determine the length of a child's stay in school are first, his own capacity for mental and physical development, and, second, his probable occupational future. Modern studies of development are showing us that for the mass of children, the years of rapid gain, either in mental or in physical powers, are over by sixteen years. For some children, notably the superior, the years of most rapid acquisition fall earlier than that and are complete by fourteen or fifteen. However, since the children who are earlier in approximating maturity are the superior who must be kept in school in any case, it seems only fair to fix the school leaving age at the time when most children, even the somewhat retarded, have reached approximate maturity. Sixteen years is the best determination of that point which we can make at present. These same retarded children are the ones who will of necessity enter the more routine types of productive work.

The more specific question which we now must attempt to answer is, What should be the content of education up to sixteen years for children of less than average ability to do academic work? I have three suggestions to make. The first is concerned with vocational training, the second with training for citizenship, and the third with training for the use of leisure time.

The only type of vocational education for this group which promises to be of real service is that of allowing them to organize and conduct some simple industry for themselves. It would make comparatively little difference whether the project were one concerned with woodworking or with metal working, or with some other type of process. The training would consist in giving them an idea of how raw materials are purchased, how a simple productive enterprise is organized, and how the product is marketed. If the children could themselves carry on, with help and supervision, the whole of a small business of this type, they would doubtless get ideas and points of view which would be useful no matter what particular type of industry they happened to enter. There seems far more reason for attempting to teach, by practice, something about the methods and organization of industry, than there is for attempting to teach any sort of technical skills.

The modern school is doing far better than the schools of past generations in attempting to teach citizenship, but even more of this type of work can be developed. Allowing the children to organize their own governmental bodies and conduct them as a real legislature or city council is conducted, has great possibilities of training. Furthermore, teaching the children to be interested in current events, to know the candidates and issues of current elections and to hold elections in the schools at which they vote on the issues and the candidates before the public, gives them a real start toward taking part in democratic life.

Perhaps the third point is even more vital and important — that of training which will help the child to make a valuable use of his leisure time. We are too likely when we discuss the use of leisure time to think merely of the cultural pursuits such as music, art, or literature. For the group of children whom we are now discussing, these higher types of aesthetic interests, or the productive activities connected with them, are frequently out of the question because of a lack of endowment and capacity. These same children, however, are capable of many simpler types of produc-

tive occupations, provided they are taught. Cooking and sewing for the girls, even though they have no immediate wage earning value, are of great value as occupational resources. There is but a limited demand for dressmakers in the modern world, but there is an unlimited possibility for young women who are interested to make their own clothes in their leisure time. For the boys, gardening, wood working, simple electrical work, and some kinds of metal work offer similar resources. Up to this time the occupations which we have just been discussing have been taught in the schools under the head of vocational training and with the idea that the children could use them for wage earning. Now we are becoming convinced that there is little or no immediate wage earning value in these disciplines. However, our conclusion is not that they should be taken out of the schools, but that they should be taught as personal resources for the children — in other words, as a part of general education rather than as part of vocational education. The aim of the school should be to teach each child some type of productive work suited to his capacities and interests, and furthermore, to teach him how to conduct it individually as a personal enterprise. In short, the variety of occupations taught in the schools, from this point of view, should be increased and not decreased. The foes of vocational education, who wish to exclude all types of training for manual work from the schools and reduce the curriculum to the traditional academic disciplines, can gain small comfort from this point of view. If everything that we now class as vocational training or domestic science or art in the schools were excluded to-morrow, on the ground that it had no further wage earning value, we should find ourselves compelled to put it back again the next day, enlarged and developed, because it has the highest type of value as training for living. We must look forward to preparing a child to earn his living at a process which has only remote interest and value, and make it possible for him to do so by giving him genuine resources which will lend zest and interest and vitality to the hours not occupied by the drudgery of earning a living.

Is there reason for pessimism with regard to the effect upon the citizen of the future of the type of life which consists of earning a living by means of a comparatively short working day devoted to monotonous labor, and having a reasonable number of hours for independent and self-initiated work and recreation? We think not. Indeed, there seems to be reason to believe that such a life offers better possibilities for development of a high type of citizen than that of the skilled artisan of the past whose disappearance we have been deploring. That it throws an even greater burden of responsibility onto the educational system, and implies a longer period of supervision and cooperation on the part of the schools before the young worker is thrown completely on his own resources, there can be no doubt. Perhaps the day may come when, through community centers and the extension of educational efforts for adults, the schools will regard it as their function to assist all of the community, regardless of age, in the wise employment of the hours of leisure.

SCHOOL COURSES FROM A PSYCHOLOGICAL POINT OF VIEW

RUTH SWAN CLARK, PH.D.

Vocational Service for Juniors, New York City

Vocational guidance as applied to young people is largely a matter of educational guidance. When told by ambitious boys of eleven or twelve years of age that they want to become sign painters, accountants, or dentists, the counselor is expected to respond with descriptions of the respective courses of training for each, and with estimates as to whether or not the youthful aspirants are likely to survive the rigors of such training from the economic, the physical, and the mental points of view. Methods for predicting the likelihood of meeting successfully the demands of higher education from the economic and physical points of view are available, for units of measure in these fields have been objectively determined, such as dollars and cents, inches, pounds, and rate of heart-beat. But the ability to predict the likelihood of meeting successfully the demands of higher education from a mental point of view is a more difficult task. It has not thus far been determined definitely to what extent school marks in elementary schools predict ability to progress successfully in high schools, or high school marks for later success in college courses. And aside from school marks, there are few objective units of measure upon which one can predict future success in training.

To be able to estimate mental ability and to predict with any assurance later success in the use of it is essentially a psychological problem. The unit of measure for general intelligence, the intelligence quotient, is the most satisfactory objective measure for prediction from the psychological point of view, as this quotient has been found by careful study to vary little for the average individual over a period of years. Whether or not this objective unit of measure can be of value in predicting success in educational and vocational guidance is another question.

In an attempt to answer this question, surveys have been made in New York City[1] of elementary school and high school pupils by

[1] Cf. "A Glimpse of High School Courses with the Use of the Otis Test," *J. of App. Psych.*, June, 1922.

means of a group intelligence test, verbal in nature. Such tests have been found by educational psychologists to have a high correlation with progress in academic school work. The results obtained in the above mentioned surveys showed a similar tendency, for such group tests rated higher in intelligence students who graduate from courses which are essentially academic, as compared with those who graduate from courses which are only partially dependent upon academic subjects. The following diagram (Fig. I) shows a comparison of the intelligence of the middle 50 per cent of the graduates of various high school courses.

These results indicate that more intelligence, as measured by such a test, is found amongst graduates of the academic course than amongst those of the special high school courses, where less academic work is required.

Similar results were apparent when a comparison was made between the intelligence of the middle 50 per cent of the graduates of an elementary school course and the intelligence of the middle 50 per cent of continuation school pupils[1] who left elementary school before graduation, as well as the intelligence of an average group of Trade School graduates, some of whom had not completed their elementary school work. (See Fig. II.)

These results show again that more intelligence, as measured by a verbal test, is found amongst graduates of an elementary school course, which is mainly academic in nature, than amongst graduates of a Trade School course, where the academic requirements are less: and to a greater degree than amongst students in a continuation school, who left elementary school at fifteen or sixteen years of age without having met the academic requirements of the eight grades.

With such results at hand, and realizing that the intelligence quotient does not noticeably change for the average person, the counselor can predict to a certain degree the likelihood of success of a youthful aspirant in mastering the demands of academic school work.

The question which now comes to mind is: Of what value is this ability to progress in academic school work in respect to success in vocational fields? The term "high school" has acquired several meanings, but its original application was to a four year school course, following graduation from elementary school, and preparing for the entrance requirements of colleges of liberal arts. Such a high school course is essentially academic in nature, and, judging from the results of the above mentioned surveys, requires high average and superior intelligence in its graduating pupils. Professor Proctor has pointed out, in a previous issue of this magazine[2] that similar selection on the basis of intelligence, as measured by the standing of individuals in the army Alpha, is constantly taking place in colleges of liberal arts, so that students of B– or less mentality are not likely to succeed. We may therefore conclude that the intelligence

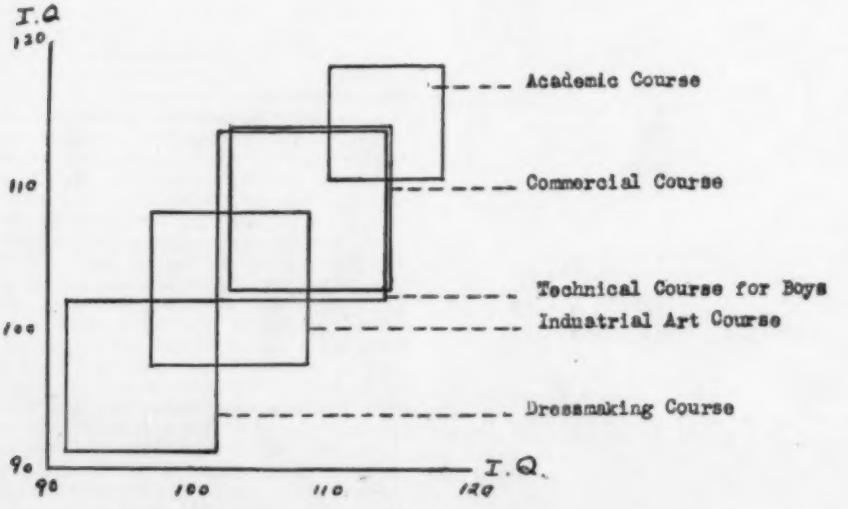

FIG. 1

[1] Cf. "The Importance of the Continuation School," *Survey*, February 9, 1921.

[2] Cf. "The Use of Psychological Tests in Vocational Guidance," National Vocational Guidance Association, *Bulletin*, April, 1923.

quotients of boys and girls are valuable indices of their ability to succeed in such vocations as those based upon training in a college of liberal arts, such as is required for the professions and high grade technical work. Men of this superior intelligence, according to the army survey, held such jobs as engineer officers, ministers, and doctors.

To return to the high school field, many courses are now being offered to graduates of elementary schools, such as the Commercial Course, the Technical Course for Boys, the Industrial Art Course, and the Dressmaking Course. The results of the New York surveys showed that the average intelligence quotients of the graduates of these courses were respectively: 109.4, 108.9, 103.1, and 97.4. As these

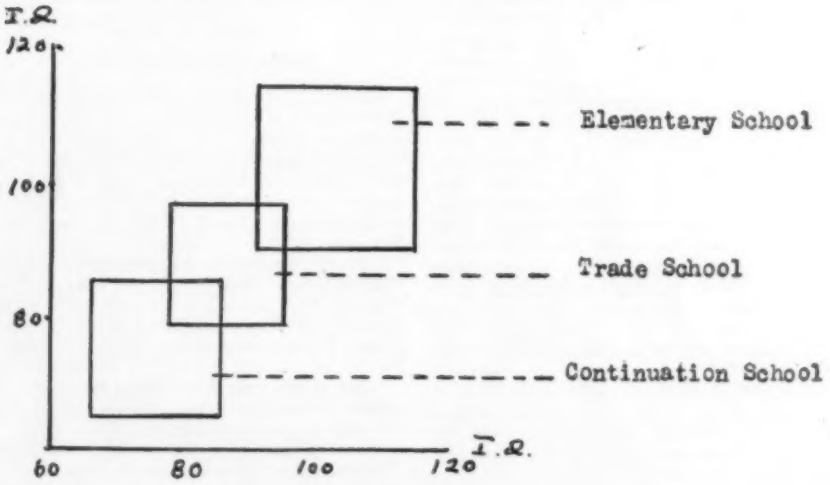

FIG. 2

courses are not essentially academic courses, they may be called the vocational courses of the High School level. They represent training covering a period of three or four years, a half or more of which time is given to academic requirements. The vocational courses themselves develop highly skilled work, and the training is largely carried on by means of verbal instructions. The students who survive these courses are those of average and high average intelligence, as measured by group tests, verbal in nature. Men of this intelligence, according to the results of the army survey, held such jobs as: telephone operators, telegraphers, construction foremen, photographers, general electricians, band musicians, bookkeepers, stenographers, accountants, and secretaries. Such an array of highly skilled jobs suggests further development for training in vocational courses of the high school level.

If high school courses maintain these requirements of teaching highly skilled vocational work, the training for which is largely academic, it seems wise that trade schools or vocational schools of a lower level than that of high schools should offer opportunities to boys and girls who cannot survive the demands of so much academic training. Pupils of low average and dull normal intelligence, as measured by group tests of a verbal nature, would fall into this group, having intelligence quotients ranging from 75 to 95, roughly speaking. Trade school courses are shorter, require less academic training, and the skilled work is as frequently learned by watching others at work, and by studying samples of work produced, as by means of verbal instructions. Such trade school courses might well be divided into two classes, those open to elementary school graduates and those open to boys and girls who cannot successfully meet the academic requirements of the eight elementary school grades. Trade school courses offered to graduates of elementary schools would be dealing with boys and girls of better intelligence than those who leave school before graduation. The intelligence quotients of the middle 50 per cent of 556 8B graduating students ranged from 91 to 115. If, of these pupils, those with good average and superior intelligence are given opportunities to study vocations of the high school and college levels, approximately the lower third of this graduating group will be those who can well be taken by trade schools. The intelligence quotients of this group would approximate 80 to 95. Men of this degree of intelligence, according to the results of the army survey, held such jobs as:

cooks, laundrymen, horse trainers, painters, carpenters, chauffeurs, locomotive engine men, brakemen, conductors, general machinists, telephone and telegraph linemen, motor-cyclists, plumbers, tool-makers, auto repairmen, policemen, and veterinarians. It is apparent that most of these vocations deal with concrete objects, animals, machines, and people in groups, rather than with words, figures, and people as individuals. Courses of training for such vocations might well be cared for by trade schools of this level.

For elementary school pupils who leave school because they are not able to graduate before they are sixteen years of age, another vocational problem presents itself. These pupils were drawn into the continuation schools in New York City the first year they were opened. The intelligence quotients of the middle 50 per cent of a group of 780 of these pupils ranged from 60 to 86, giving an average intelligence quotient of 75, as measured by a group test, verbal in nature. Men of this intelligence, according to the results of the army survey, had held such jobs as: laborers, tailors, miners, teamsters, farm hands, concrete workers, barbers, general boiler makers, horse-shoers, railroad shop mechanics, and brick layers. Whether or not these vocations can be called trade jobs, is a question. It is interesting to note that these jobs deal mainly with objects, animals, and simple tools. The period of training for each is not long, with few exceptions. Moreover, the minimum amount of academic work would be required in the training for each. Courses leading to such vocations might be opened for these elementary school pupils as early as the fifth or sixth grade, weaving into the academic school requirements enough non-academic training to interest them and to prepare them for work which they could do well.

A counselor, therefore, knowing the intelligence quotient, as measured by a verbal group test, of a youthful boy or girl, can get some idea of the amount of academic training which the individual can absorb, and consequently predict to some extent the vocational level which can be attained. To say that no other psychological test is needed for educational and vocational guidance is absurd. Special ability tests, which do not correlate highly with the group intelligence tests of a verbal nature, but which at the same time correlate highly with success in special vocational courses of training, are much needed by the psychologist in the field of guidance. With the assistance of such test results, the counselor can attempt to predict the type of vocation which the individual may do best, such as those dealing with words, figures, concrete objects, tools requiring the use of small muscles, of large muscles, control of hand by eye, ear, etc. The results of such tests, combined with those obtained from an intelligence test, would give the counselor some idea, not only of the type of vocational work which might be preferred, but also of the level of attainment within such a vocation. The policy of advising young people to aim for success in the highest form of vocation for which they are capable is the most stimulating principle with which the counselor can work. With the assistance of a psychologist who is continually devising and standardizing special ability tests and correlating their results with success in typical vocations, the work of the counselor can be greatly advanced and checked up on such a basis of objective measurements.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL ENTRY OR RESERVOIR CLASS

LOUISE C. KEYES

Boston Continuation School

Vocational Guidance work is the most important part of the work done for the Entry or Reservoir Class of the Continuation School. The child enters the school without a friend, discouraged and hopeless. Under the adopted methods of personal intercourse, counsel in course of study, study of occupational opportunities, and follow-up work faithfully done, she leaves the Entry Class to start a new life, one that will "put her on the road to somewhere," should make her a successful citizen, earning a living wage, living in good environment, taking advantage of everything afforded her by the community and state.

This study has been made for girls. The same method may be applied to the boys' division of the Continuation School.

Type of Child. When the children enter the Continuation School they are placed in the Entry Class. There is a wide difference in these girls due to variance in grades, as they range from girls who have left in the sixth grade, ungraded classes of the elementary and parochial schools, to the Boston High Schools, such as the Latin School, High School of Practical Arts, Trade School, Clerical School, and suburban high schools. Some of these girls are at work, some out of work, and others have Home Permits, or permission to remain at home.

Reasons for Leaving School. These children have left school for various reasons, such as, economical pressure, dislike for school, failure in study, failure in discipline cases, and chums leaving school. Many of these children hate the word school, many love it.

Problem. The problem to be solved here in the entry class is what to do with these children? Would a great many of them be in the Continuation School if they had proper advice? We may argue they have been guided in previous schools. Girls with money, girls without money, girls with sixth grade educa-

tion, girls of high school, girls at work and girls out of work — have they been counseled correctly? My idea of the Entry Class work of the school is purely *Vocational Guidance Work.*

Compulsory Schooling. Can this be accomplished? This can be done by a study of the child, a study of the job, a study of the child in the job, and a study of the home conditions. Have the last compulsory schooling place the child on her feet, and start her with a counselor and friend.

Classification of Work. Can this be successfully accomplished? My answer is "Yes."

What method is used? I have classified my work under three heads.

(1) Questionnaire or personal investigation.
(2) Selected lessons or Course of Study.
(3) Field Work or visits to places of employment and homes.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Name in full .....
Age: years, months .....
Address .....
Grade left school .....
Name of school .....
Reasons for leaving school:
Failure in work .....
Loss of interest .....
Desire to go to work .....
Financial conditions (home) .....
In which study did you receive the highest rating? .....
Which study did you enjoy the most? .....
How did you obtain present position? .....
Kind of work .....
Salary (piece or week) .....
What qualifications have you for present position? .....
What study in previous training will help you in present position? .....
What advantage (other than financial) has the position to offer you? .....
What is the next position higher? .....
What is your parents' advice on present position? .....
How much time have you lost by sickness in school work? .....
What do you do evenings? .....
What form of recreation do you enjoy best? How obtained? .....
How much money have you saved? .....
What course in the Continuation School will help you on present job? .....
Do you intend to secure an Evening High School education? .....
Write a list of books you have read .....

Written Questionnaire. From the questionnaire the vocational counselor gets an intimate knowledge of the child. From experience I find the child will write more freely than she talks about herself, therefore the written questionnaire should precede the individual discussion.

Course of Study. The second topic, selected lessons, Course of Study. A complete study of the most important trades open to girls in Boston, such as Dressmaking, Millinery, Power-Operating, Domestic Service, Typewriting, and Bookkeeping should be made.

Following are examples of outlines of study of particular occupations.

TYPEWRITING

1. *Qualifications:*
   (*a*) Grammar School. Grade B.
   (*b*) First year. High School. Bookkeeping.
   (*c*) Enjoys study.
2. *Positions and Pay:*
   (*a*) According to firm working for.
   (*b*) Complete with Business College, Clerical Schools, High School Grade.
3. *Specialization:*
   Further study, Accountants, Business Houses, etc.
4. *Opportunities for Advancement:*
   (*a*) Evening High School.
   (*b*) Private Business Courses.
   (*c*) Civil Service Examinations.
5. *Conditions of Work:*
   (*a*) Subject to inspection.
   (*b*) Laws regulating working hours.
6. *Reasons for Selecting Trade:*
   (*a*) Love of study.
   (*b*) Evening Commercial High School Diploma.
   (*c*) Enter office boy or girl, or self-made.
   (*d*) Look ahead for seven years — age 20–25.
7. *Parts of Boston — all over Boston:*
   (*a*) Business homes.
   (*b*) Mercantile houses.
   (*c*) Law offices.

The girl in this line of work must compete with the college, high school, and business college graduate, and to succeed she must attend evening school. Little opportunity is open for girls 14 to 16 years old in office work. The only positions they hold are in running errands, filing letters, operating the adding, multigraph, or addressograph machines.

DRESSMAKING

1. *Qualifications:*
   (*a*) Good eyesight.
   (*b*) Good sense of color.
   (*c*) Ability to use hands properly.
   (*d*) Neatness of person.
2. *Positions and Pay:*
   (Discuss both types.)
3. *Specialization of Trade and Pay:*
   (*a*) Errand girl.
   (*b*) Shopper girl, trimmer girl, match samples, assist at fitting.

(c) Waist drapers.
(d) Waist finishers.
(e) Sleeve makers.
(f) Embroiders.
(g) Skirt finishers.

4. *Opportunities for Advancement:*
   (a) Demand great.
   (b) Training in school, Trade School, Continuation School.
5. *Conditions of Work:*
   (a) Subject to inspection.
   (b) Rules regulating working hours.
6. *Reason for Selecting Trade:*
   (a) A girl should like to sew.
   (b) General School Training, English, Business Accounts, Follow-up cards.
   (c) Enter as errand girl and work up with a good firm, learn trade. A few firms employ girls.
7. *Parts of Boston and locations of Trade:*
   Back Bay, Newbury Street, Boylston Street, Tremont Street, etc.

The children in dressmaking shops, between the ages of 14 to 16 years, have a good opportunity to learn the trade. Many of the higher class managers are willing to take a girl as an apprentice and train her in the trade. Some few employers only hold girls for rush jobs, holding a girl for the season only. This type of employer will not, in time, be given any juvenile help. It leaves the child out of work, wasting time, hunting another job.

The millinery trade, while taught in the school, is unprofitable for a child 14 to 16 years of age to enter. Occasionally a child may be taken as an apprentice, but on account of short seasons and rush orders there is little time to instruct the child when employed. Older help may be obtained who are well trained to take positions opened. There is also a long, dull season, unprofitable for the child. Again the sport and automobile hats have reduced the demand for hand-made hats. There is very little demand in Boston for an apprentice at this trade. Only demand is as errand girl.

Power-Machine

1. *Qualifications:*
   (a) Good health.
   (b) Strength.
   (c) Good eyesight.
   (d) Muscles of fingers and hands.
   (e) Nerves.
2. *Position and Pay:*
   (a) Vary according to type work.
   (b) Piece and week work.
3. *Kinds of Work:*
   Stitching.
   Tucking.
   Trimming.

Other Processes:
Sleeve making.
Body making.
Ruffle making.
Hemming.
Buttons.
Buttonholes.

Hand Work:
Finishing.
Pressing.
Examining.
Inspecting.
Folding.
Pinning.
Packing.

4. *Specialization of Trade:*
   (a) Stitching.
   (b) Hemstitching.
   (c) Buttonholes.
5. *Opportunity for Advancement:*
   (a) Demand great.
   Firms take any girl.
   (b) Trade School.
   Bennett Street.
   Continuation School.
6. *Conditions of Work:*
   (a) Subject to inspecting.
   (b) Laws regulating working hours.
7. *Seasons:*
   (a) Dull.
   (b) Heavy.
8. *Reasons for Selection:*
   (a) Steady employ for good operator.
   (b) Quick trade to learn.
   (c) Course in power-machine C. S.
9. *Parts of Boston:*

Essex.	Readville.
Edinboro.	North End.
Kingston.	West End.
Harrison Ave.	South End.
Roxbury.	South Boston.

For the girl who dislikes regular school studies and will not continue evening school courses, power-machine operating has a wide field, open to the girl to earn her living. There are hundreds of places in Boston to work at this trade. In hundreds of factories I have visited they are always ready to give a job to a stitcher. They cannot get help enough. The pay is good. I hope to see the power-machine placed in the course of study in the 7th and 8th grade of Boston schools, especially in the localities that promote the industry, such as Roxbury, East Boston, and South Boston.

Domestic Service Cooking

1. *Qualifications:*
   Good health.
   Love of home work.
2. *Position and Pay:*
   According to employer.
   (Present conditions mail questions.)

3. *Specialization:*
   - Waiters.
   - Cook.
   - Serving (Course in Cooking).
   - Nurse (Food for the Sick).
4. *Opportunities for Advancement:*
   - Living out in other homes.
   - Mother's helper.
   - Serving to cook.
   - Courses in cooking.
   - Evening schools.
   - Private courses.
5. *Conditions of Work:*
   - Subject to inspection.
   - Laws regulating working hours.
     - Hotels.
     - Restaurants.
     - Homes.
6. *Reasons for Selecting Trade:*
   - Enjoy cooking.
   - Necessity.
   - Conditions at home for you to cook.
   - No family.
   - Home and living combined.
7. *Parts of Boston:*
   - Small Lunch Rooms.
   - Lunch Counters.
   - Tea Rooms.
   - Serving Sodas.
8. *Mothers' Helpers:*
   - Private homes.

There is opened in Boston for the juvenile help a few positions. Waitresses in small lunch rooms, lunch counters, and soda girls. The demand for mothers' helpers is great, but the child dislikes leaving home associations to take the position. It is also difficult to make arrangements satisfactory between the child, parent, and employer. The money paid for this work is small.

The remainder of the work, arithmetic, English, geography, history, civics and hygiene, should be presented through vocational guidance.

How material is obtained:

1. Boston Public Library.
2. Books.
3. Magazines.
4. Newspaper Clippings.
5. Pamphlets from City and State Departments.
6. Leaflets State Board of Health.
7. Post Office.
8. Western Union.
9. United States Bureau of Education.
10. Civic Clubs.
11. Pictures and Lantern Slides.
12. Maps and Charts.
13. Reports and Documents.
14. Collection of Specimens. (By pupils and teacher.)

GOWIN AND WHEATLEY

OCCUPATIONS

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This new edition of this widely-known book embodies

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GINN AND COMPANY

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15. Follow-up Visits.
    (*a*) Homes.
    (*b*) Employment.
    (*c*) Personal experiences related. (Based on follow-up visits.)

Another way of promoting interest in vocational guidance is by outside speakers.

SUBJECTS

Use of Library for Children 14 to 16 Years.
How to Keep a Position.
First Aid Treatment, Health.
Store Opportunities for Girls.
Success in Business.
Store Opportunities for Boys.
Playgrounds.
How to Apply for a Position.
Business Organization.
Food, Correct Lunches.
Opportunities for Working Girls and Boys in Boston from 14 to 16.
Opportunities in Silk Trade.
Advantage of the Out Patient Department for Working Boys and Girls.
"Work is the Genius that Wins."

Vocational Studies. These lectures may include all vocations studied in the school. We cannot estimate the gain of this personal contact of successful men and women lecturing to the children.

Field Work. Through the questionnaire of individual conference, through the selected course of study, vocational guidance has been considered. This is not a complete circle of vocational guidance work unless we consider the third factor, namely the field work. The greatest possible good has come in this work. Visits to hundreds of places of employment and to many homes have proved this conclusively.

Children 14 to 16 Years. The children in Boston between the ages of 14 to 16 years work in various fields of employment. A study of "The Working Children of Boston" by Helen S. Woodbury has given a review of these conditions.

Factory Visits. By a visit to the factory the vocational counselor has an opportunity to see the child at work or on the job. She obtains the record of the child's work, possibilities for advancement, the type of work the child is adapted to, and learns whether the child, as often is the case, is filling in during the rush.

"Blind Alley" Jobs. After due consideration of the job, the question is, "Is there a future here for the child?" If so, tie up the work with the type work the school offers. This will in time eliminate the "blind alley" job for the child. Instead of the "blind alley" jobs, there will only be temporary jobs open to promotions for life's career. For example, a child is working as an errand girl in a dressmaking establishment. The word errand girl means nothing but a "blind alley" job. A visit to the firm proves there is a chance for this girl to advance to sewing, stock girl, saleslady, bookkeeper, or stenographer. Conference with the employer shows the opportunities open. The child decides through the counselor the choice of trade. A visit to a power factory confirms the choice and the girl secures a position as finisher in the factory.

In such a case there may be an opening for various kinds of stitching or office work. The vocational counselor may find out by a visit to the firm the child's possibilities and place her correctly. The child is always the first consideration, and should never be sacrificed for the job.

Home Visits. Home visits educate the parents who need help and advice as to the future possibilities for the child to earn a living wage. They give the vocational counselor an accurate knowledge of the child's environment. She finds out the length of time the child can study and receive help from home. In this case the child will be guarded from taking the job which offers the most pay for the present time.

These visits develop sympathetic relations between the school and home. They make the child realize the human touch — "Someone else is interested in her." They show the parents the advantage of further education. Many home visits have resulted in parents having children return to school to study. Eventually, it means better citizens earning higher wages. These visits, also, lead the parents to educate themselves, opening the avenues of education to them, such as parents' clubs, school centers, and the immigration school.

These parents are instructed as to right places for children to spend their spare time, which may afford correct amusement, such as recreation clubs, summer camps, and libraries. Thus the child may have the advantage of the best efforts the city and state have provided for her improvement.

FOLLOW-UP WORK

The individual case has become the real problem in the Continuation School. When a child first reports to the school a record similar to the above cases is recorded: Name, age, residence, father's name, occupation, grade left school, reasons for leaving, name of employer, address, kind of job, how obtained, hours of work, pay received, reasons for leaving position. All these data are filed in a personal record envelope. These envelopes form one of the most concise and interesting pieces of research work the school is doing. There is no one attending the school of whom we do not hold a personal record up to 16 years of age. This record is referred to continually. Reasons of change of job and new jobs obtained help the instructor to assist the child in

finding out the type of work she should be in, and in vocationally guiding the child in the kind of employment to follow. These personal records as they are termed give added material for the child labor workers. I think I can state they are the best data from which to obtain statistics for all children working between the ages of 14 and 16 in Massachusetts. By asking the child the type of work she is doing, the name of the factory she is working in, we can judge if this work is suited to the child's health. We readily find any firm that is violating the state child labor law.

Another phase in the school is the individual case in the form of follow-up visits. From the information thus obtained we have accomplished the greatest amount of good. Not only is the continuation school instructor a guide and a friend, even a chum, of the child's; she is also the same to the employer, father, mother, and guardian. The follow-up slips give the head of the department full information on the individuals attending the school. Each visit made by an instructor is completely written on these records and is at the disposal of the head of the department. From the instructor's records she has a personal touch of sympathy with the child, making the school a group composed of individuals rather than the whole unit. This individual or personal touch determines the success of the school.

A few cases of the follow-up work from places visited in Boston will show the personal touch that the instructor gathers from the city. No instructor can become an expert in her line unless she does this field work, conscientiously and thoroughly. From this field work she gathers materials for lessons in civics, personal hygiene, mathematics, and related work. She also acquires knowledge which helps her to broaden her point of view in the study of the working child. Little material can be obtained from the reports in libraries on the careers and type of work the child is doing. These are of value in formulating courses of study and worth while for the advance of the school.

From the hundreds of firms visited at the opening of the school employing minors from 14 to 16, very few refused to comply with the state law of continuation schools. Visiting these same firms four years after, we find there are only two not willing to tell us the great amount of good the school is doing for the individual and the community. Four years ago many of the children were apprentices with these firms doing such work as errands, light clerical work, basting, cutting threads, making buttonholes, folding, finishing, in power factories, packing candy, floor girls, or in altogether light jobs. Visiting these same factories last year I found many girls employed with the same firms but advanced in their jobs. Many of these children now 18 or 20 years old are skilled operators on machines employed in work earning large pay at the present time. I remember meeting one who had advanced to floor woman. Talking with her, she claimed the help received in the school has always been a great incentive. Today when she needs new girls she at once phones the school for new apprentices, knowing that the problem of help is settled at once. The girls in the offices have been advanced to assistant bookkeepers, and expert typists. A few individual cases may be interesting. On a trip through Boston during the busy hours of the day we may find our girls doing a few jobs as, Beatrice packing cleansing polish in boxes and sealing box when finished; Anna, inspecting engraving work and visiting cards; Susie, baster puller in a factory; Mary making thermometers and cutting wires; Bernadette helping in a bindery; Alice wrapping caramels in a candy factory; Estelle making garters and stitching; Rosie, beside her, putting on bows and clippers for garters; Catherine ripping hats in a bleachery; Celia working in a laundry; Eileen doing fancy embroidery; Rosemary finishing vests; Dora packing nails; Dorothy making artificial switches; Jenny stitching in a curtain factory; Nettie running errands; Helen working on an adding machine; Mollie in a stocking factory; Margaret working on leather novelties; Irene working on gold leaf. This is a very brief statement of the type of work that children from 14 to 16 are doing in Boston.

The Law as a Vocation

By FREDERICK J. ALLEN

"It is an admirable book in every way, simply and clearly written." — *Boston Transcript.*

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"A clear, accurate, and impartial study." — *Political Science Quarterly.*

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Harvard University Press

Randall Hall, Cambridge, Mass.

Visits to the Home

Visits to the home also form a valuable part in the work we are doing. In this way the instructor gets into close touch with the family. Many mothers and fathers cannot afford to lose their pay by coming to the schools to find out information about the child. A day's pay cannot be deducted from the weekly income without many hardships. These are the working fathers and mothers of the city. Free schools are for their children and they should receive the same consideration as the well-to-do class. The interests of their children are as dear to their hearts as in the case of the better class. Many economic factors enter into their lives. A few cases of home visits may interest the reader.

Eileen is absent from school, a visit to the home by the instructor reveals the fact that the child is not working, cannot get employment. The instructor explains to the mother that the child must report at once to the continuation school, to the placement department where work may be obtained. Generally, the child reports immediately and within a very short time she is given a position and her case followed up. Mollie has a home permit. Visit to the home shows the mother is sick, and the child getting dinner. Her place the instructor realizes is at home with her mother. Teresa has a home permit. Her mother works by the day, father is in the hospital, there are four children in the family. Teresa is the oldest. Home duty obliges the child to remain at home. Alice is not attending school, investigation proves the girl is wayward or stubborn. The case is placed with one of the many departments for children or with some charity association to follow up the case and give aid. Margaret out of work, out of school. A visit to the home clears up the case. Mother has been killed. The family needs immediate help. The instructor gets in touch with the association which can render this assistance. Grace attending school cannot work, cannot keep her position. By investigation we find the child has been in poor health for several months. Economic conditions at home have forced the child to work. She needs to be placed in the hands of the doctor. She is taken to the nearest hospital.

Mary is in poor health, cannot attend school regularly. A visit to the home gives the following information: There are ten children in the family, two older than Mary, mother dead, father not steady in employment. The case is placed with the proper authorities to follow up.

Many hundreds of visits are made to the homes during a year. These visits are more fruitful in enlarging the human sympathy of the instructor with the working child. They alone make her realize the great work these minors are performing. To enumerate many cases and go in detail would make one judge that the instructor's work is entirely that of social worker. Words are insufficient to relate the amount of vast good which has been realized by these home visits. The people interviewed are very glad to receive help and suggestions from us and we in turn from them. Over and over again, a mother will say she never had a teacher call before and we are blessed and thanked a hundred fold for the little good we are doing.

The follow-up work, to the places of employment, and to the homes, is of the utmost importance in helping the child for her life-career. It may be more vital to the child than the instruction given in the classes of the school.

NOTES FROM THE FIELD

The New York Vocational Guidance Association

Ethel T. Gitton, *Secretary*

The spring meeting of the Association was held on May the 15th. The matter of having a permanent office and a paid secretary was considered. The Association is planning to have a central office with an executive secretary, and arrangements are being made to provide such facilities in order to link together the various agencies that are doing vocational guidance work, and also to connect the schools with the field of industry.

The chief speaker of the program was Mr. Edward D. Cray, whose subject was "Observations of Boys' Week." Mr. Cray discussed at length the plans carried out for Boys' Week in the city. He said that at the Chamber of Commerce boys were brought together and addressed by the President of the Stock Exchange, and that various large firms gave some of the boys opportunities to fill executive positions for a day. Hotels coöperated and many firms in the city in some way contributed to the work of Boys' Week. Talks were given in every school on the importance of choosing occupations.

The Children's Welfare Federation

Mary Arnold
Executive Secretary

Under the direction of a group of experts, intensive study is being made of the vocational guidance and placement work for juniors in New York City. The study will extend over a period of six months and is being made at the request of the Committee on Vocational Guidance and Allied Interests, representing 51 organizations in this field of work of the Children's Welfare Federation. A trained worker has been assigned to the staff of the Federation to do the intensive field work, and

it is estimated that the work of over 100 organizations will be covered by the study. The ten experts selected by the Committee on Vocational Guidance to direct this work meet every two weeks to go over the material collected. The Children's Welfare Federation has been fortunate in securing such experts as S. S. Board, Brooklyn Y. M. C. A.; J. R. Buell formerly of the American Association of Social Workers; Miss Margaret Carr, New York State Department of Labor; Dr. F. J. Keller, East Side Continuation School; A. E. Kidd, Western Electric Company; Mrs. Alice K. Pollitzer, Vocational Service for Juniors; and Charles M. Smith, High School Placement Office.

A Bibliography of Occupational Studies

MARY STEWART

Assistant to the Director General, in charge of Junior Work, U. S. Employment Service

The Junior Division of the U. S. Employment Service has undertaken to compile a bibliography of occupational studies available for use in junior work. Our recent survey of the field of vocational guidance and placement revealed a general feeling that occupational knowledge gained from a detailed study of the actual work and the conditions surrounding it formed one of the most valuable working tools of the vocational counselor and the placement officer, and, furthermore, that such information was pretty meagre and difficult of access.

It is true that conditions surrounding employment vary with the locality, but the main facts incident to an occupation are fairly constant. Moreover, while the placement officer's information must necessarily be highly localized, that of the vocational counselor need not be so restricted, and perhaps should not be, since at the present time few people remain fixed geographically.

There is no question that there has been much duplication of effort in the making of occupational studies, and while some of it is probably necessary, much could be avoided, if the field at large could be made aware of what had been done and what is being done elsewhere, and if this material could then be made more generally available. Waste and duplication of effort are particularly regrettable while so much yet remains to be done. Will you not join with us in making a bibliography which shall render the whole store of information available to those who can use it most effectively? We shall be glad to send you our questionnaire.

It is our plan to compile a cumulative list of the studies which have been made, indicating in each case whether they are available for free distribution, could be exchanged for others of like value, or are for sale. We do not expect to supply the studies themselves nor to conduct negotiations concerning their circulation or exchange. Each person wanting to use one of the studies would deal directly with those making the study, from information obtained either from our printed list or furnished upon request from the files of cards in our office.

"Plan Your Progress," Central High School, Detroit, Michigan

R. B. CUNLIFFE

Vocational Adviser

We are issuing a pamphlet, Plan Your Progress, which we are using in our English-Occupations course. In addition to making available a fund of vocational literature with which the student otherwise might not have any contact, the purpose of the pamphlet is to suggest a number of important vocational problems which the student later must solve, to stimulate his thinking regarding them, and possibly to outline an approach to the solution. So the booklet is not meant to inform, primarily, but to assist the student in finding out something about his problems, and to help him to solve them.

Our course is divided into two sections. A part of our time is given to the discussion of vocational problems affecting the worker, and the rest to the study of definite occupations.

SUMMER SCHOOL

for

Occupational Studies

I. Organization and Method of Industrial Visiting.

II. Occupational Information and Statistics.

III. Occupational Analysis.

Bring Your Problems to these Conference-Study-Lecture Courses

GLEN HOUSE, GORHAM, N. H.

AT THE FOOT OF MOUNT WASHINGTON

Write for announcement and terms

MAY ROGERS LANE

GRANT BUILDING, 17TH AND PINE STREETS

PHILADELPHIA, PA.

This pamphlet is planned to make possible the correlation of English and Occupations, as we have been doing, or occupations, with possibly one of the social science subjects.

Vocational Guidance at the Brooklyn Continuation School

I. David Cohen, *in charge*

How is vocational guidance functioning in the Continuation School? This is a question that many are asking themselves.

The New York State authorities have defined the Continuation School as a Vocational Guidance institution, and has declared that every teacher is a vocational counselor.

In the Brooklyn Continuation School which has been in existence four years, the following is being done:

1. Diversified courses are offered to the pupils with opportunity for frequent change from one activity to another if desired, provided this change is approved by the pupil's teacher and is the result of close observation of the pupil's ability.

2. Counseling is given in every class, not only as to employment problems and conditions but also as to health, thrift, social, and educational matters.

3. In the preparatory class, a study is made of occupations, the requirements for success, and the pupil is interviewed for inclinations, hobbies, and any other matters that will help to decide his future plans.

4. A Vocational Folder containing the personal history of the pupil, a record of his progress in the school, and his occupational activities, is kept throughout the school career of the pupil.

5. A Saving Bank encourages him to become a depositor and inculcates habits of thrift.

6. Medical Inspection by physicians and nurses of the Industrial Hygiene Bureau reveals to the pupil physical and other defects, shows him the need for changing occupations when necessary, and helps him to remove any handicaps under which he may be laboring.

7. A Booklet on Occupations for Boys and Girls covering the conditions and requirements of Every-Day Occupations, the work of the faculty of the school, assists the pupil to enlarge his vocational information and to plan his future.

8. A Code of Ethics established as a result of school discussions places before the pupil standards of good conduct.

9. An Employment Bureau helps him to find employment, if unemployed, or to find better employment in accordance with the pupil's abilities.

10. Visits and talks by employers, employment managers, and others, inform the pupil about current affairs, business conditions, and topics of timely interest.

The result is seen when a pupil who has been in the school for any length of time, formulates an ambition, finds better employment, and becomes more familiar with social, civic, and industrial conditions.

The Work of the Minneapolis Vocational Guidance Association

Ella S. Molter, *Secretary*

There has been no activity of the Minneapolis Association, as such, since the November Meeting, but the groups represented have been working toward the educating of the public as to the place of Vocational Guidance in the whole scheme of living.

You will receive from Miss Margaret Smith, an account of the year's activities of the *Woman's Occupational Bureau*. The Woman's Occupational Bureau has accomplished some very definite things, and Miss Smith's contribution to the success is generally conceded.

In addition to the efforts of the Schools, through the regular channels, the Y. W. C. A. Girls' Work Department conducted a conference for their members in one of the High Schools, when a group of 200 Freshmen and Sophomores heard discussions of the requirements to enter the Professions of Kindergarten Teacher, Business Woman, Commercial Artist, and Nurse. This was well received by teachers and girls, and is worth being followed by similar meetings.

One of the features of "Boys' Week" observed here this month, was the arrangement for groups of boys to visit factories and shops and observe men and boys at work, that they might become acquainted with the types of operation required in any given occupation, and so become interested in the trades. Vocational talks were also a feature.

The Annual Meeting of the Association was held May 10th, at the Girls' Vocational High School; sixty persons were present, and were most interested in the talk on Vocational Tests, by Donald G. Paterson, Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Minnesota. His wide acquaintance with Army and Industrial Tests, and his keen analytical sense, have combined to make him a refreshing speaker in a field, where one may be so easily lead astray.

Then followed the business session, when the officers for the coming year were elected:

President Mr. A. F. Benson.

Vice-President Mr. D. G. Paterson.

Secretary-Treas. Miss Helen Stevens, 216 Meyer's Arcade (Woman's Occupational Bureau).

Chairman Membership. Miss Bertha Ferguson.

Chairman (Program Publicity). Miss Julia Drew.

We have nothing but praise for your work on the Bulletin, and wish we might have had more to contribute.

Conference of the National Vocational Guidance Association

Friday, July 6, 1923, 2 P.M., Auditorium, Oakland Y. W. C. A. Building

The object of this conference is to bring together those who are interested in the problems of vocational guidance, — particularly to take account of present trends in the movement.

SPEAKERS

1. MISS MARY STEWART, Director, Junior Division, U. S. Employment Service. "Significant Trends in the Vocational Guidance Movement."
2. MR. NICHOLAS RICCIARDI, President, California Technical School, San Luis Obispo, Calif. "The California Technical Plan for Vocational Guidance."
3. MR. WILLIAM HARDIN HUGHES, Director of Educational Research, Pasadena Public Schools. "Educational Guidance as a Prerequisite to Vocational Guidance."
4. DR. VIRGIL E. DICKSON, Director of Research and Guidance, Oakland and Berkeley Public Schools. "Guidance Program of the Oakland and Berkeley Schools."
5. PROFESSOR WILLIAM M. PROCTOR, Associate Professor of Education, Stanford University. "The Committee of Fifteen Survey of Guidance in California."

In our last issue the name of Professor William M. Proctor appeared as Chairman of the Committee of Fifteen of the California Teachers' Association, in the article entitled "Questionnaire on Guidance of High School Pupils." We are now informed that Professor C. E. Rugh, of the University of California, is chairman of the committee, while Professor Proctor is chairman of a subcommittee on "Guidance, Educational, Vocational, and Moral."

SPECIAL NOTE

WITHOUT the consent of the editor, I wish to take space enough for a word of appreciation. On June 9th Frederick J. Allen completed thirteen years of continuous service to the cause of vocational guidance. This is perhaps more than any other living man or woman can claim, when we remember that the movement for definite and organized counseling and guidance began in 1908. Mr. Allen began his service with the Vocation Bureau of Boston, and came with it to Harvard University. The tangible evidences of his contribution to the work of vocational guidance are too numerous and well-known to mention here. The latest proof of his devotion and unselfishness is his editorship of this Bulletin, a new and difficult task added to an already full program — and successfully done.

JOHN M. BREWER.

BOOKS AND OTHER LITERATURE

A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF INDUSTRIAL PENSION SYSTEMS. Conant, Luther, Jr., The Macmillan Company, New York, 1922.

In this book the author discusses the social and economic motives which actuate employers in introducing pension systems into their industrial enterprises. In the analysis of this subject, the underlying principles and the advantages and disadvantages of pensions of the non-contributory "discretionary," non-contributory "limited-contractual," and contributory types are considered in some detail. An attempt is made to evaluate cumulative "single-premium" annuities and an informal pension policy as contrasted with a formal system. The author indicates the need of any employer to take into consideration such aspects of the problem as those included in this study before initiating a pension system, since, he asserts, "it is hardly too much to say that the history of pension schemes has been a record of mistakes or failures." But, as Mr.

STUDIES OF OCCUPATIONS

In Agriculture, Forestry, and Animal Industry

By FREDERICK J. ALLEN

Bureau of Vocational Guidance, Harvard University

40 cents per copy, $4.20 per dozen, $30 per hundred, carriage prepaid

A bulletin containing brief but comprehensive studies of each of the important occupations in Agriculture, Forestry, and Animal Industry. This work was undertaken as a sequel to "A Guide to the Study of Occupations." The study of each calling is based upon the following outline: Importance, work done, advantages, disadvantages, preparation, other requirements, income, and effect upon the worker, with a brief bibliography upon the occupation.

"I acknowledge with thanks receipt of your valuable 'Studies of Occupations.' They are excellent patterns for the kind of occupational analysis which I hope will come into vogue." — *Harry D. Kitson*, Professor of Psychology, Indiana University.

Bureau of Vocational Guidance

Harvard University

Conant goes on to state, in spite of its importance, the financial aspect of the question is less important than the broad economic and social consideration involved.

The book is of value to employers, to all employees who wish to be intelligent on a subject that is of vital concern to them, to practically all students of social problems in general, and to students of economics in particular.

— Mabel F. Hale.

OCCUPATIONAL-INTELLIGENCE STANDARDS. H. Douglas Fryer. *School and Society, Vol. XVI, No. 401, September 2, 1922.*

Mr. Fryer's readaptation of the Army Alpha results is evidence of the kind of research which is needed in connection with these data at Washington and those for other departments which dealt with testing. He classified 96 occupations on the basis of the average achievement score and gives the range of the middle 50 per cent. This results, he indicates, in a rough classification into five levels: Professional occupational level; technical occupational level; skilled occupational level; semi-skilled and low-skilled occupational level; unskilled occupational level. It will be noted that commercial occupations as such are not included, but in the table several of them may be distinguished, roughly classifying themselves about even with the technical occupational level or perhaps slightly higher.

One difficulty with this treatment is the inevitable tendency to pay too much attention to the average score, or even to the middle 50 per cent. It seems quite clear that in any occupation one can name, a wide variety of intelligence and ability is needed. There is high-class thinking required in every vocation, and there is likewise much routine work. A refinement of the division of labor will probably spread the curves for occupations. This, however, is mere guess, and no doubt others may guess that each occupational curve will gradually become narrower in scope with less and less overlapping among the occupations.

— John M. Brewer.

BUSINESS REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDATIONS. H. Douglas Fryer. *Administration, January, 1923.*

This is a very clear exposition of the value of breaking up the rating of an employee into separate categories rather than throwing the mark into one general classification. Furthermore, it was found that employers themselves welcomed the opportunity, at least, half of them, to mark on seven topics — intelligence, workmanship, industriousness, interest, character, leadership, and coöperativeness — on a scale of five points from *excellent* to *unsatisfactory*, even when they were offered the alternative of describing the man in terms of a single adjective for each of the seven different qualities. — John M. Brewer.

MINIMUM SPECIFICATIONS FOR HIGHWAY ENGINEERING POSITIONS; A PRELIMINARY STATEMENT. A. B. McDaniel, Chairman, Committee on Specifications for Engineering Positions. *Professional Engineer, May, 1923.*

This article is the report of a committee appointed by the American Association of Engineers to "specify the qualifications essential to successful work in various engineering positions." The committee has studied the highway engineering group and has stated the minimum specifications in each field. This includes Chainman-Rodman Instrument Man, Chief of Party, Inspector, Engineer Inspector, Resident Engineer, Copyist, Draftsman or Tracer, Draftsman, and nine others. Under each field the specifications are classified under skill, knowledge, and personal which includes personal characteristics necessary. It is interesting to note that there are so many different fields in the highway engineering group whose importance has not been recognized heretofore. Although the Committee does not consider the report as final and urges criticism, it is a valuable statement not alone for the engineering profession but also for those engaged in personnel work.

— Mabelle B. Blake.

AUTOMOTIVE REPAIR. The Wright Automotive Series. Wright, J. C. John Wiley & Sons, New York and London, 1921–23.

Volume I. Instruction Manual of Repair Jobs for the *General Repairman and Owner.*

Includes descriptions of and full instructions for doing every common automotive repair job, also the principles of construction and operation including gas engine mechanics applied to automotive equipment.

Volume II. Instruction Manual of Repair Jobs for *Electrical Service Men.*

Includes more than 50 electrical repair jobs and the study of electricity as applied to automotive equipment.

Volume III. Instruction Manual of Repair Jobs for *Battery Service Men.*

Made up of a number of actual battery repair jobs together with a thorough study of batteries.

Volume IV. Instruction Manual of Repair Jobs for *Tire Service Men.*

Includes full instructions for doing every repair job the tire service man will be called upon to do, with a full description of the underlying principles.

The demand for a suitable textbook on automotive repair is universal. Within the past fifteen years not only many private schools but also hundreds of public schools have undertaken to prepare men for employment as repairmen or to take care of their own automobiles. The author was for a number of years connected with both public and private schools which were attempting to give this training in automotive repair.

SUMMER SCHOOL COURSES

IN

Vocational Guidance, Vocational Education, and Education

AT

HARVARD UNIVERSITY

The Harvard University Summer School in 1923 has announced the following courses of especial interest to readers of this Bulletin:

1. THE PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICE OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.
2. EDUCATION AS GUIDANCE.
3. PSYCHOLOGICAL METHODS IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.
4. OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION, RESEARCH, AND SURVEYS.
5. THE PRINCIPLES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.
6. THE REHABILITATION AND REËDUCATION OF HANDICAPPED PERSONS.
7. THE ORGANIZATION AND SUPERVISION OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, AND HIGH SCHOOL COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.
8. VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO THE PROJECT METHOD.
9. PART-TIME SCHOOLS AND CLASSES.

Instructors for these courses are as follows:

Frederick J. Allen, Research Associate, Bureau of Vocational Guidance, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

Richard D. Allen, Director of Research and Guidance, Public Schools, Providence, R. I.

John M. Brewer, Associate Professor of Education, and Director of the Bureau of Vocational Guidance, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

H. B. Cummings, Special Agent, Industrial Rehabilitation Division, Federal Board for Vocational Education.

John A. Kratz, Chief, Industrial Rehabilitation Division, Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Frederick G. Nichols, Associate Professor of Education, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

Arthur F. Payne, Assistant Professor of Industrial Education, University of Minnesota, and Lecturer in Vocational Guidance, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Rufus W. Stimson, Supervisor of Agricultural Education, Massachusetts Department of Education.

There will be thirty other courses in education under the following divisions:

The Theory and Principles of Education.
Educational Psychology.
The History of Education.
Secondary Education.
The Immigrant Problem.
Educational Administration.
Elementary Education.
Educational Statistics and Measurements.
The Theory and Practice of Teaching Special Students.
Demonstration classes of children from the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades will be conducted in connection with this division.

A special feature of the Summer School is a course in "The Problems of City School Administration," arranged by Professor L. O. Cummings, and conducted by a group of specialists, including Richard D. Allen and John M. Brewer. The purpose of this course is to enable superintendents to get the point of view of authorities in the field.

The Summer School will offer fifty or more other courses in the general fields of the arts and sciences.

The Bulletin of the Summer School can be obtained from the Secretary of the Summer School, 19 University Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

In these volumes emphasis is placed upon repair jobs rather than upon theory of design, or detailed types of construction. Automotive principles are relatively few in number, while the methods of application by manufacturers are numerous. The volumes are bound in cloth and richly illustrated.

The author of this important series is the Chief of the Industrial Education Service of the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

SUMMER SCHOOL COURSES IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Continued from the April Issue

University of California, June 25 to August 4, 1923, at Berkeley.

"Youth, Schools, and Vocations," given by Professor Arthur D. Dean. Salvage of youth through guidance and education; meeting the problem through the junior high school; educational and vocational guidance and training; social significance of vocational education. 2 units.

University of Colorado.

"Vocational Guidance," given by Professor L. Thomas Hopkins. This is a general introductory course confined to a study of the vocational problems of school children and young workers. It will include such topics as a general survey of the vocational guidance movement; the meaning, purpose, kinds of and necessity for guidance; why it should be an integral part of education; methods of securing guidance through occupational classes, try-out courses, vocational implications of present school subjects, intelligence and achievement tests, social activities, and counseling. An analysis will be made of various methods of pseudo-guidance.

Emory University, Georgia.

A course in Vocational Guidance is to be given by Professor Gilbert H. Smith of the University of Oklahoma. Consideration will be given to the following topics: try-out possibilities in the boy or girl's environment; the study of occupations; the making of first, second, and third choices of vocation; vocational education; guidance in securing suitable employment; and guidance in making progress and readjustments in the vocation once chosen. Special attention will be paid to the problems of the teacher, both in gathering vocational information and in giving vocational guidance through the regular courses.

Hunter College, New York City.

A course in the Principles and Problems of Vocational Guidance, conducted by I. David Cohen.

The course will be thoroughly practical and will include considerable field work, visits to industrial establishments, vocational schools, vocational guidance bureaus, making reports and surveys.

It is designed for vocational counselors, teachers in junior high, vocational, and continuation schools, as well as all other teachers who are preparing to teach occupations or who desire to acquaint themselves with the aims, methods, and problems of vocational advisement.

For information as to terms, etc., write to I. David Cohen. The Brooklyn Continuation School, 155 Ryerson St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Indiana University.

A special summer session is to be held at Kokomo for the professional training of vocational teachers. One of the courses included in the program is listed as "Vocational Counseling, Placement, and Supervised Employment."

University of Missouri.

Educational and Vocational Guidance: Guidance a function of the secondary school. Means and methods.

Mount Washington Summer School of Occupational Research.

See advertisement on page 181.

University of Pittsburgh.

The University of Pittsburgh will offer a course in Vocational Guidance during the 1923 Summer Session. This course carries two University credits, and is a general course as applied to all phases of education and the development of the growing youth. Vocational guidance, educational guidance, and personal guidance as they relate to the whole guidance problem will be considered.

Stanford University.

For the second half of the summer session, a course given by Professor William M. Proctor on "Vocational Education and Guidance." This course is designed to meet the needs of high school principals and counselors.

University of Texas.

Vocational Guidance: For elementary and high school teachers, special teachers, directors of vocational education, and school superintendents. Meaning, significance, and justification of the movement; methods of determining individual capacities and aptitudes; adequate school and follow-up records; study of social needs of the community in terms of profitable occupations. Emphasis on practical application to public school requirements and introduction of vocational guidance. Lectures, recitations, collateral reading, reports. Prerequisite: Sophomore standing, or two years' experience in teaching or supervision.

Harvard Books on Education

A GUIDE TO THE STUDY OF OCCUPATIONS

By FREDERICK J. ALLEN, of the Bureau of Vocational Guidance in Harvard University. $2.50

"Teachers of vocations and vocational counselors should certainly have access to the volume." — *Elementary School Journal.* "The fundamental nature of the material should make this guide of great value to all interested in vocational guidance." — *School Review.* "Altogether a most useful book." — *Journal of Education* (London). "Mr. Allen's book is a good contribution to the working equipment of a vocational counselor. The material is excellently arranged for reference." — *The Survey.* The volume was included by the New York State Library in its selected list of "Best Books of 1921 for a small public library."

LEARNING AND LIVING

By EPHRAIM EMERTON, Winn Professor of Ecclesiastical History in Harvard University (*Emeritus*). $3.00

"One of the most delightful books recently published on the scholar's life." — *Springfield Republican.* "In the charm of their literary style, in the mingling of wit and wisdom, in their sane and hopeful outlook upon life, these essays remind us of the best work of the New England writers of an earlier generation. No recent book is more serviceable to those who work in the field of education than this sheaf of essays." — *The Congregationalist.*

OLD AND NEW

By CHARLES H. GRANDGENT, Professor of Romance Languages in Harvard University. $1.50

"It is a simple doctrine that he preaches, reinforced by the infinite wit of a genuinely witty man: work, hard work, and a determination to face difficulties and overcome them."— *The Review.* "If you care to hear what an intelligent scholar, not a pedant, has to offer in an admirable style upon phases of modern education and tendencies in literature and in pronunciation, you will lose no time in securing a copy of Grandgent's volume of essays."— *Buffalo Evening News.*

THE MANUALE SCHOLARIUM

Translated from the Latin by ROBERT F. SEYBOLT, Associate Professor of the History of Education in the University of Illinois. $1.50

"The translation in colloquial English corresponding to the colloquial Latin, is excellent (it is the first complete translation in any modern language). The translator has added elaborate explanations in the introduction and the footnotes and a few typical statutes selected from the codes of Erfurt, Heidelberg, and Leipzig, in an appendix. This translation makes excellent reading."— *Isis.* "This translation is a valuable contribution to the study of the Middle Ages and the history of education." — *Sewanee Review.*

HOW THE FRENCH BOY LEARNS TO WRITE

By ROLLO W. BROWN, Professor of Rhetoric and Composition in Carleton College. $1.50

"One lays down the book with the feeling of having been personally conducted on a pleasant, interesting, and stimulating tour of inspection through the French schools. It is singularly fortunate that this study was made at a time when France was at her best, industrially and educationally, when the blight of war had not yet fallen upon her, and the achievements of a toilsome upward struggle since the days of the Second Empire had reached their full fruition. In the picture of the French schools there is much that is suggestive and inspiring for American teachers of the mother-tongue." — *The English Journal.*

UNIVERSITIES AND SCIENTIFIC LIFE IN THE UNITED STATES

By MAURICE CAULLERY, Professor at the Sorbonne; translated by JAMES HAUGHTON WOODS and EMMET RUSSELL. $2.50

"With the clarity, conciseness, and appreciation of spiritual values characteristic of the French, the author gets at the essentials of our system of higher education. . . . Nothing could be more admirable, more scientific, than the spirit in which this traveler's impressions are recorded. The translators have done their work faithfully and deserve our thanks for thus making available to the American reader a book genuinely unique in point of view." — *New York Evening Post.*

To be found at all bookshops

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